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VOLUME V
No. 4

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NORTH CHINA TODAY
(*Board of Information*)

SUMMARY OF THE BASIC POLICY ON FINANCE AND BANKING
(*Department of Finance*)

PAST RELATIONS BETWEEN JAPAN AND FRENCH INDO-CHINA
(*Third Division, Board of Information*)

ADJUSTMENT OF TRAFFIC IN WARTIME
(*Department of Railways*)

FROM JAPANESE POINTS OF VIEW

October, 1941

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NORTH CHINA TODAY

BOARD OF INFORMATION

I

IN any attempt at understanding new China the importance of North China, as an essential factor makes itself apparent. Particularly is this so from the Japanese point of view, since it is vitally related to Japan, both geographically and politically. The following description of the growth of national life in new China, in all its various aspects, is therefore given from the standpoint of its relationship with North China.

Governmental Activities

When a nation is in the process of a radical and gigantic reconstruction such as we are witnessing today, governmental activities naturally play an important part in shaping its life. In North China such activities come under the direction of the Political Council of North China, a special organ which, since the establishment of the new National Government at Nanking in March, 1940, has taken the place of the Provisional Government at Peking.

A glance at the past history of this part of China will be sufficient to explain the reason why it should be accorded the special status of an autonomous area under the new Council. Under the old Nationalist Government, even after the centralization of all governmental powers by Chiang Kai-shek, this area had remained outside the direct control of the Nanking Government, enjoying an autonomous rule as in the case of the Hopei-Chahar Political Council, not to mention the East Hopei Autonomous Régime. Since this area has been most intimately related with Japan politically and economically, it has always been imperative for the Government to shape its policies with this peculiarity in view. Under the present international conditions, moreover, no measure for national defence can be perfect unless it is worked out on the basis of this relationship. Such being the case, it is not surprising that Mr. Wang Yi-tang who succeeded Mr. Wang Keh-min as Chairman of the Council in June, 1940, visited

Japan last autumn in order further to promote friendly relations and collaboration between the two neighbouring countries.

The Council's good-neighbour policy bore other important fruit in November last year, when the North China-Mengchiang Economic Agreement was concluded, thereby enabling North China to import her much needed cereals. The settlement of the silver and Federal Bank note issues in connection with the British Concession in Tientsin have also greatly facilitated the financial and economic activities of the Council.

The Council's main efforts, however, are directed at the establishment of peace and order and the stabilization of living conditions of the people. With this aim in view, such measures as the restoration of the *Hsien* system, the improvement of the police administration, the perfection of the judicial system and the cleaning up of bandits and remnants of the Chungking and Communist troops have been successfully carried out. The importation of wheat from Mengchiang under the Economic Agreement with that Government[1], together with the adoption of effective measures for unemployment relief both in urban and rural districts have also contributed greatly toward safeguarding the life of the people. The reopening of higher educational institutions, including the University of Peking, which has been reorganized with five colleges—Medicine, Engineering, Agriculture, Literature and Science—amalgamating four universities of Peking, Peiping, Ch'inghua and Chiaot'ung, is further evidence of progress along these lines. It is interesting to note in this connection that Prof. Chou Tso-jen, a noted man of letters in China, has taken the place of Mr. T'ang Erh-ho as Director of the Board of Education.

Development of Mineral Resources

In estimating the progress of any modern nation a basic factor is the development of mineral resources without which it cannot feed the ever growing essential industries. That North China has an almost inexhaustible wealth of coal and iron deposits, the most essential minerals for heavy industry, is widely known. The North China Development Company, which has been established with the special purpose of developing those resources, has embarked on

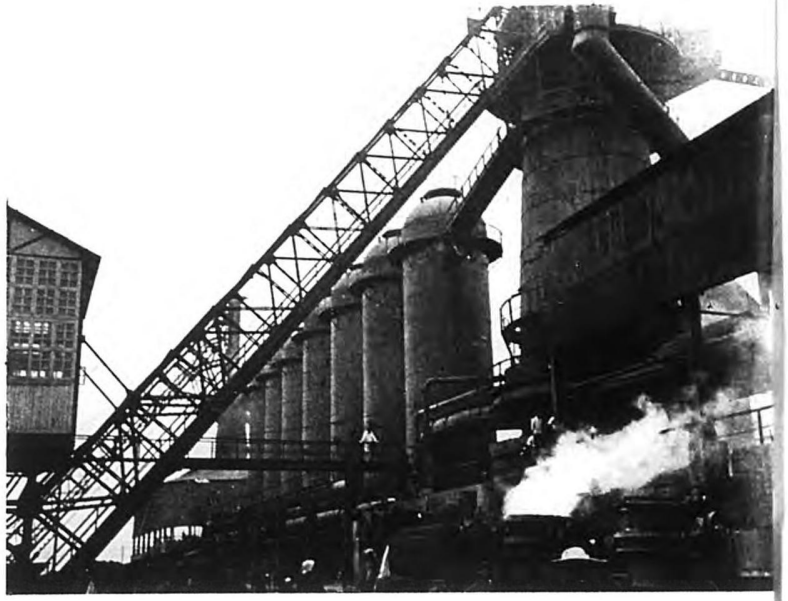
[1] The Government of Inner Mongolia established in 1937.

IN NORTH CHINA

Right : In the playground of the National Girls' Normal School of Peking

Left : At Peking University where women study side by side with men

Left: Sheep grazing in the suburbs of Paoting



Right: Operation in full swing at the Taiyuan Iron Works

energetic and efficient activities.

A wealth of mineral resources, however, does not in itself contribute toward the construction of a new China and a new East Asia. Communications, transportation and labour are all essential to the successful exploitation of these resources; lacking in these facilities they cannot be turned to good account. From this point of view, the resources in Hopeh and Shantung are the most ideally situated while those in Shansi have yet to await the future development of transportation facilities. Nonetheless, the importance of the coal deposits in Shansi Province for the future of East Asia remains undisputed. According to investigations conducted by experts of various countries, they amount to more than 100,000,000,000 metric tons, their quality being anthracite and bituminous. This colossal potential wealth of coal, together with some 3,000,000 metric tons of iron deposits available in nearby districts, constitutes a significant advantage to the iron industry, particularly in the refining of pig-iron into steel. The Taiyüan and Yangchüan Iron Works in Shansi and the Shihkingshan Iron Works near Peking all enjoy similar favourable conditions. The coal mines in Shantung and Honan Provinces, on the other hand, are fortunate in commanding good transportation and other facilities. Thus the Shantung Mining Company, Kailan Coal Mine and the newly established Tsingsing Coal Mine have been able to meet the immediate needs of the Chinese industry. Noteworthy also is the fact that these mines produce caking coal which is indispensable for the production of iron, since to produce one ton of pig iron the same amount of coke is required. The importance of the Tsingsing Mine in supplying not only coke to iron works in the neighbouring districts but also fuel coal to cities in North China and even to Japan can be appreciated by studying the map. It is situated on the railway line connecting Taiyüan with Shihkiachwang, which is a junction between that line and the Peking-Hankow Railway. Furthermore, the newly opened Shihkiachwang-Tehchow line has greatly facilitated transportation between the mine and Tsingtao. Other coal mines of importance to Japan are the Chunghsing Mine in Yihsien, northeast of Hsüchou, situated on a branch line connecting the Tientsin-Pukow and Lung-Hai Railways, and the mines of the Shantung Mining Company to be found along the Tsingtao-Tsinan Railway. With transportation facilities available, they were soon

reconstructed after the cessation of hostilities and by 1940 their plants had reached full working capacity.

Industry

In the present phase of industrial development the electrical industry is of fundamental importance. In North China this basic industry is in the hands of the North China Electric Company in Peking, the Kiaoao Electric Company in Tsingtao, the Tsinlu Electric Company in Tsinan and the Chefoo Electric Company in Chefoo, all of which are subsidiary concerns of the North China Development Company. Of these enterprises the most important is the first named concern, which is capitalized at 100,000,000 yen. This enterprise, started in February, 1940, includes, in addition to the generation and supply of electricity to the Peking, Tientsin and East Hopeh districts, a large-scale generation, transmission and supply of electric power for industrial purposes. The electric-light enterprises in Shansi, Hopei and Honan Provinces, which were formerly managed by the Hsingchung Company, have also come under its control. For the purpose of increasing and strengthening power, generating plants are to be constructed in Kweiteh, Yücheng and Yangchüan during the current business year. With a view to economizing equipment and materials and to rationalize enterprise, connections for transmission have been readjusted and perfected, and the unification of voltage and frequency carried out throughout North China. The most important step toward the radical improvement of electrical undertaking in this part of China has been the plan for hydraulic generation utilizing the water power of the Lwan River, a basic investigation of which is now under way. Thus the weakness of North China in this field of industry, which shows a great preponderance of thermal generation plants, will be overcome by the introduction of a powerful hydraulic generating system.

With regard to the iron industry mention has already been made of the deposits of iron ores. The Taiyüan Iron Works, which were originally established by Yen Hsi-shan, have been enlarged to substantially increase its output and in the near future will handle the refining of pig iron into steel. Plans are also under way for the expansion of the other two iron works, the Shihkingshan and Yangchüan Works.

Another major industry of North China is the production of salt. For the purpose of supplying Japan, Manchoukuo and China with salt for food and industrial purposes, the demand for which has greatly increased owing to the European War having brought a stoppage of importation of pelagic salt, a plan for increased production in this region has been successfully carried out.

The two noted districts in North China for the production of salt are the Changlu salt fields along Pohai Bay, and the Shangtung salt fields, bordering the Yellow Sea, with Kiaochow Bay as their centre. The former are now in course of development by the North China Salt Works, while those at Shantung are managed by the Shantung Salt Works.

The North China Salt Works, aiming at an economic regeneration for the local Chinese, has first of all set about rehabilitating the salt fields of Hanku, Sinho, Tanku and Tenku totalling approximately 38 square miles, at the same time, carrying out a plan for the developing of new fields in Taku (19 square miles) and Tatsingho (23 square miles).

The fields under the management, directly and indirectly, of the Shantung Salt Works are those owned by Chinese and the Yungyu field, which together total some 19 square miles. Here again the two objectives of an economic regeneration for the Chinese population and the development of new fields are not lost sight of.

Agriculture

The task of rehabilitating the agricultural population in this part of the Continent, who have suffered from severe droughts and unprecedented floods following fast on the heels of war, was by no means an easy one, but by dint of energetic endeavours on the part of both the Chinese and Japanese authorities, the difficulties have been overcome, and the farmers are able to anticipate rich harvests from the vast plain of North China. It may be an exaggeration to say that every necessary measure has been taken for an economic improvement of the Chinese farm population, whose living standard based upon primitive methods of agriculture has been extremely low. Nevertheless, it can safely be said that a comprehensive plan for an increased production of wheat, cotton and wool on the basis of exhaustive investigations has been satisfactorily worked out.

In this part of China the necessary foodstuffs are wheat for the upper classes in cities and towns along the railways and millet, *kaoliang* and maize for the farm population and the lower classes generally. North China is essentially an agricultural region, and it seems strange that there should be any shortage of food stuffs. The reason is that technical inefficiency coupled with natural calamities and wars have greatly lowered the productivity of the soil. The shortage of foodstuffs has accordingly to be met by importation from Australia, Canada, Japan and Central China. New plans aimed at self-sufficiency in foodstuffs have been formulated and in addition steps have been taken for an increased production of rice for the benefit of the Japanese population.

With regard to cotton, North China was producing 5,000,000 piculs in the pre-China Affair years, but owing to the quality it was not being imported to Japan in any appreciable quantity. Now that her economic position, particularly trade relations, have undergone a drastic change, it is necessary for Japan to obtain supplies of cotton from North China. This new state of affairs has called for a plan to bring the cotton output up to 10,000,000 piculs, as well as to cultivate improved strains.

But how are these measures for an increase in agricultural products being carried out? The major agencies promoting increased production are the North China Agricultural Experimental Station, the North China Cotton Improvement Association and cooperative societies. These agencies employ more or less the same methods as do similar institutions in other countries. The cooperative societies are mostly promoted by the Hsin-min-hui and have as supervisory organs the *Hsien* Federations and the Central Federation for North China. Not only do they function as pure socio-economic institutions but also as organisations for the guidance of productive technique. The Cotton Improvement Association also has the cooperative societies under its auspices.

The movement for the protection of railway promoted by the North China Transportation Company is contributing considerably toward increased production in cooperation with the Cotton Improvement Association. It was this movement that was responsible for the drilling of some 3,000 wells last year and is now planning to drill 16,000 this year, for the irrigation of cotton as well as wheat, millet, maize and other crops. Land planning and conservancy

work are other essential factors in the promotion of the agricultural industry in North China. For the former purpose the North China Reclamation Company was established. Methods of land conservancy, having far-reaching effects upon the economic and industrial life of the community, calls for superior technique, and an enormous amount of labour, expense and time. The plans, however, have been partially carried out with success.

Mention must be also made of the activities of the North China Wool Improvement Association, which came into being last November with the object of improving the quality of wool and increasing the output. The Hsishan stock farm near Wanshushan in Peking was established to specialize in the rearing of sheep and goats with supervisory stations in Shantung and East Hopei, all of which work for East Asia's self-sufficiency in wool.

SUMMARY OF THE BASIC POLICY ON FINANCE AND BANKING

DEPARTMENT OF FINANCE

HAVING regard to the urgent necessity of strengthening the national economic structure in coping with the current international crisis, the Government formulated, and gave out on July 11, the basic policy on finance and banking, laying down the foundations for the execution of the country's wartime economic policies. This is what is commonly known as the new financial and banking structure.

I. GUIDING PRINCIPLES

With a view to solidifying the economic foundations for the carrying out of wartime national policies and hastening the establishment of a highly organized national defence structure, changes will be introduced to the financial and economic fields calculated to facilitate a planned mobilization and distribution of national financial resources. At the same time, the principles, structure and methods of employment of capital resources shall be further improved, and full scope will be given to national economic strength ensuring a smooth functioning of a comprehensive planned economy.

II. ESSENTIAL POINTS OF THE POLICY

A. Plan for Mobilizing National Financial Resources

1. An estimate of national financial resources shall be formed by taking a comprehensive account of the total output and other factors of national economy and, in order to distribute them rationally among national finances, industries and the people's consumption in accordance with national purposes, a national funds mobilization plan shall be laid down.

2. A plan for national savings shall be set up in accordance with national financial resources mobilization plan referred to above.

3. The aforesaid mobilization plan is to be worked out for each year, while a rough estimate of financial resources for several years shall also be taken.

B. Reform of the Policy Governing National Finances

1. Reorganization of the Accounting System

For the purpose of rationalizing the management of national finances, and of rendering closer its relation to the operation of planned economy, the accounting system shall be reorganized in the manner set forth below:

(a) In view of the fact that the General Account has hitherto comprised all payments irrespective of their nature, thus lacking in clearness as to the relation of such payments to the operation of planned economy, it is proposed to properly adjust the accounts, showing plainly whether the individual disbursement is an ordinary expenditure or one that makes up the assets.

(b) Likewise, the same discretion must be used in the handling of the Special Accounts.

(c) The forms of the budget shall be improved so as to make it more intelligible and, at the same time, it shall be so framed as to give it more flexibility to enable the Government to act speedily in response to the course of events.

(d) The existing accounting system shall be re-examined and any necessary improvement made to deal successfully with any requirements in wartime.

2. Reform of the Methods of Compiling the Budget

In compiling the budget the total estimates must be made first, by taking account of relations of funds with materials. The budget shall be drawn up on the priority basis in accordance with the supreme national policies. In this connection, the following points shall be observed:

(a) In compiling the budget for each year, the heads of the different administrative departments shall unite in deliberations for deciding on cardinal national policies to be followed by the Government.

(b) In order that the expenditures required for the execution of cardinal national policies and for other purposes may

not exceed the total amount fixed in conformity with the plan relating to national finances, the administrative departments shall conduct thorough re-examinations and readjustments of the expenditures already decided upon.

As to the revenue, the sources of income shall be properly arranged with reference to the nature of outgoings, so that a resort to the national loan issue will be limited to the expenditures whose nature warrants such a step.

3. Reform of the Taxation System

As the function of taxation is to secure the revenue necessary for meeting any requirements of national finances, a more rational taxation system shall be established with due consideration to its relation to the realization of planned economy. In this respect, the following points are of especial importance:

(a) The creation or revision of taxes, including changes in tax rates, shall be effected in such a way as to allow people of all classes and walks of life to do their part.

(b) The taxation policy shall be carried out with a view to contributing toward the expansion of essential productive activities, the regulation of consumption, the growth of national savings, the absorption of purchasing power and the operation of other policies.

(c) Taxation for each year shall be increased or decreased according to the requirements of national finances.

(d) The method of assessment and collection of taxes shall be rationalized.

4. Placing of the Issuance and Absorption of Government Bonds on a Planned Basis

The estimated amount of Government loan issues shall be fixed within the limit of the resources available for the purpose. The issuance and absorption of Government bonds shall be planned, having regard to monetary control, and rational measures shall be taken concerning the retirement of the bonds.

(a) No loans shall be issued purely for the purpose of covering deficits in the revenue.

(b) Concrete plans for the absorption of the bonds and measures for its realization are to be formed.

5. Reform in Local Government Finances

In line with reform in the national finances, local government finances shall be controlled from the standpoint of the operation of national economy as a whole. At the same time, efforts must be made to develop local peculiarities and to adjust or supplement what is superfluous or lacking in economic resources in individual localities, so as to avoid any unnecessary expenditures. Furthermore, adjustments shall be made in respect to the sources of funds required for the execution of matters commissioned by the Central Government or the work to be accomplished in cooperation with the Cenrtal Government.

C. Revision of Banking Policy

1. Planned Management of Industrial Funds

The total amount of funds to be employed in private industries and in foreign investments shall be regulated and their allotments worked out, taking into account the actual conditions of production, materials and labour, in a manner calculated to allow national economic strength to manifest their highest efficiency. By this means can the supply and use of industrial funds be placed on a planned basis.

2. Reorganization of the Banking System

Financial operations shall be conducted in conformity with the plan relating to the national capital resources and the flow of currency and credit shall be regulated systematically and for public good, and with a view to facilitating the absorption of Government bonds and the acquisition of materials, power and labour for the purpose of ensuring the prosecution of planned economy.

(*a*) *Perfecting the Function of the Bank of Japan*

The functions of the Bank of Japan, as the central organ in charge of the operation of the Government's control of banking, shall be further strengthened and its financial relation with other banking institutions rendered closer. In accordance with conditions of the money market, the Bank of Japan shall actively contract or release funds, thereby augmenting its function for the regulation of the money market.

(*b*) *Tightening of Control of Financial Institutions*

Financial institutions shall be required to form such an organization as to bring investments, loans and credits, and their collection to conform to the Government's policies of banking control. This organization shall keep close financial relations with the Bank of Japan, while promoting among its member institutions the spirit of solidarity and encouraging them to utilize their joint investments and loans.

In effecting the supervision of the financial institutions, efforts shall be concentrated upon ascertaining whether they are faithful in performing their duty to carry out planned economy.

(*c*) *Organization of Financial Institutions*

Financial institutions shall be required to form a unitary system with the Bank of Japan as its nucleus, and they shall thus function under the direction of the Government as one body united in a community of purpose, rendering concerted efforts in the operation of financial control and endeavouring to bring finance and industry into closer collaboration.

This financial system shall, in principle, be organized by the Bank of Japan and other institutions, classified according to the nature of their business, as a country-wide organization. Where necessary, district organizations shall be created, including all classes of financial institutions in each district.

(*d*) *Adjustment and Unification of Financial Institutions*

In line with the organization of financial institutions, any undesirable competition shall be eliminated, their management rationalized, and the cost of loanable funds lowered. For this purpose, the formation of new organs shall be considered where deemed advisable, and, also, new organs shall be set up if necessary, and the special banks and special companies engaged in financial business shall be created.

(*e*) *Measures concerning the Acquisition and Employment of Banking Funds*

While the management of each financial institution is to be undertaken by itself and on its own responsibility, in accordance with governmental control, measures shall be taken, where deemed necessary, for the purpose of facilitating banking control, to allow participation of the credit of the Government in connection with the acquisition and the responsibility of repaying the funds so raised. And means shall be provided whereby investments and loans shall be guaranteed by the Government's credit, or claims shall be taken over by the Government, thereby rendering their collection easier.

(*f*) *Harmonious Operation of the Various Financial Systems*

Measures shall be taken to enable various financial agencies, including the ordinary financial institutions and associations of financial organs, to maintain a harmonious unity and carry on their business in accordance with the same guiding principles. Thus, the entire range of the money market, as one body, shall endeavour to influence banking control.

(*g*) *Unification of the Employment of Government and Other Public Funds*

The funds accumulated in the Treasury Deposit Bureau, in Postal Life and other special systems of social insurance, and in the mutual aid societies organized in various Government agencies shall be employed in a unitary manner in accordance with general banking control.

3. Rationalization of Security Transactions

The methods and structure of transactions in securities shall be rationalized with a view to stabilizing security values at proper levels and to facilitating transactions in such securities as are essential in wartime. By this means a smooth flow of industrial funds and national savings shall be conserved. In addition a stricter supervision shall be applied to the business of security dealers.

4. Effective Use of Industrial Capital

Industrial enterprises are required regularly to write off their assets and to conserve their profits as far as possible in order to strengthen their financial position. Moreover, the management of the undertakings shall be rationalized so as to enhance their human and material resources, while a more rigorous capital control shall

be exercised over them in order to concentrate their surplus funds.

On the other hand, arrangements shall be made to facilitate the acquisition of industrial capital necessary for the expansion of the nation's capacity to produce. Again, where any industrial equipment is compelled to remain idle, the Government may, when deemed desirable from the national point of view, grant credit for their operation or cause the same to be turned to some other use. Moreover, where it is deemed necessary, such measures as to place them under state management shall be studied.

5. Government's Financial Aid for Industrial Equipments

In case any in dustrial equipment is newly installed or extended at the request of the Government, the latter may, where deemed necessary, make contributions to the capital or grant credit to the enterprise. The Government, when deemed fit and advisable, may set up the plant for itself and entrust its operation to a private enterprise.

6. Revision of Foreign Exchange Policy

The object of foreign exchange policy is to use effectively the funds in foreign currencies in unison with foreign trade policy, to ensure the acquisition of goods necessary in the Empire and within the sphere required for Japan's existence.

At the same time, it is important to increase the value of the yen in international settlements and to enhance the country's economic facilities abroad.

The following points are of particular concern in this respect:

(a) A system shall be established whereby the Government may, when deemed necessary, take upon itself any risk arising out of the fluctuations of exchange rates.

(b) Such agreements as will facilitate the settlement of international accounts and other financial transactions shall be concluded with other countries.

(c) A plan for international settlements shall be fixed each year, taking into consideration the trade plan covering the same period, and practical measures shall be taken to see that the plan is properly executed.

7. Regulation of Investments in Manchoukuo and China

While it is highly desirable that funds for national finances and

industrial enterprises in Manchoukuo and China should be raised in the respective countries, it will be necessary for the present to comply with their requirements on the part of Japan. Accordingly steps shall be taken, with reference to the consequential exchange of goods and labour, to put into effect a systematic and unitary financing in conformity with the plan relative to national capital resources.

III. REORGANIZATION OF THE ADMINISTRATIVE STRUCTURE

For the purpose of bringing about a smooth operation of the present programme set forth above, a reorganization of the administrative structure or readjustment of its functions shall be effected. The present programme shall be put into operation as soon as feasible, and, where any legislative actions are necessary, these shall be considered forthwith.

PAST RELATIONS BETWEEN JAPAN AND FRENCH INDO-CHINA

THIRD DIVISION, BOARD OF INFORMATION

SITUATED in the southeastern part of the Indo-China Peninsula where the continent of Asia extends into the China Sea, and approximately 1,600 kilometres southwest of Taiwan, the southernmost island of Japan, French Indo-China is bounded on the east and south by the China Sea, on the north by China and on the west by Burma and Thailand. The entire territory consists of Tongking, Annam, Cochin-China, Cambodia and Laos. Politically, Kwangchow-wan, a French leased territory on the northeastern coast of the Leichow Peninsula in China, also comes under the jurisdiction of French Indo-China.

It was 83 years ago that France first sent a military expedition to Indo-China, thereby marking the introduction of French influence in this peninsula. This action was taken following the murder in February 1856, of a missionary named Father Auguste Chapdelaine in the interior of Kwangsi province. France acquired her first foothold in Indo-China in 1862 when she succeeded in placing part of Cochin-China under her control. The French then proceeded to convert the kingdoms of Cambodia (1867) and Annam (1883) into her protectorates, the latter kingdom including Tongking and Annam. In 1887, the French protectorates of Annam, Cambodia and Tongking, with the addition of the colony of Cochin-China, formed themselves into a union to which Laos was added in 1893 as a protectorate. Kwangchow-wan was placed under the jurisdiction of French Indo-China in 1900.

Prior to the arrival of the French, Cambodia was a kingdom of the Khmer tribesmen, with Tongking and Annam forming the kingdom of Annam, to the south of which was Chamba, formerly the kingdom of Lin-i, which was founded toward the end of the Han dynasty. In 1693 the kingdom of Chamba was destroyed by the Annamese who then extended their influence over Cochin-China and, finally, over Cambodia, but further expansion was checked by the French invasion. The population of French Indo-China is estimated

at approximately at 23,000,000, with 17,000,000 (about 70 per cent) Annamese, 3,000,000 Khmer tribesmen or Cambodians, 1,200,000 Thai tribesmen and 1,200,000 Indonesians.

Annam, which forms the nucleus of French Indo-China both geographically and racially, was previously under the rule of China, and even after becoming practically independent during the confusion at the end of the T'ang dynasty, the Annamese Kingdom deemed it expedient to accept treatment as a vassal state by the Chinese Imperial Court and kept in close touch with the latter until it became a French protectorate. As may be expected, therefore, Chinese culture has penetrated deeply into the country to such an extent that virtually all Annamese institutions as well as customs and habits are of Chinese origin.

Consequently, Confucianism underlies the moral life of the nation and the teaching of the Nine Great Chinese Classics represents their highest learning. There is thus much in common between Japan and Indo-China in that the moral constitution of both nations has been greatly influenced by the ethics and theories of Confucianism. Further, just as Buddhism was introduced into Japan from India through China and Korea, so was it propagated from Ceylon to Burma, Thailand, Cambodia, Chamba and Annam, thereby converting these nations to Buddhism and bringing them under the influence of Indian culture. In this way we find in Indo-China the convergence of the two ancient cultures of India and China, the Khmer tribesmen whose ancestors are said to have migrated from Ceylon representing Indian culture and the Annamese of northern ancestry retaining the culture of China. Similarly Japan had first fostered Chinese culture and then embraced Buddhism, which, having come from India through China, had undergone many adaptations. This fact probably explains the differences existing in the Buddhism of Japan and that of Indo-China, although in the case of Annam, Buddhism was introduced by way of China also.

Japan and Indo-China, and in particular Annam, therefore, have inherited similar cultures under similar conditions, representing the two wings of the sphere of Chinese culture within the history of Oriental civilization. In many other respects, too, both culturally and racially, the two countries have much in common. The resemblance is not only evident in the physiognomical characteristics but also in the modes of life of the two nations. This can be accounted

for in some measure by the fact that the two peoples are both related ethnologically to the inhabitants of the South Sea Islands. There is evidence of contact between the two countries during the various periods of history from the 8th century onwards. According to literature available in Japan, Heguri Hironari, a Japanese official accompanying Tajihi Hironari, a Japanese envoy to the Chinese Court of the T'ang dynasty, on his homebound voyage in 734, was caught in a storm and drifted to K'unlun, a country lying to the south of what was then known as Lin-i. In this shipwreck only four men out of a crew of 115 survived and Heguri arrived back in the Japanese capital in 739 by way of Changan, the capital of T'ang.

In 717, a certain Abe Nakamaro, had journeyed to T'ang for study purposes and while returning to Japan in 753 in company with Fujiwara Kiyokawa, a Japanese envoy to T'ang, was shipwrecked and drifted as far as Kuanchau in Annam. The southernmost province of Annam, Kuanchau, was situated to the north of Lin-i in the vicinity of what is now known as Quangbinh in French Indo-China. After their rescue, they returned to Changan, where, according to the *Ji Peng Chuan*, a book published in China during the T'ang dynasty, Nakamaro served in the court of the T'ang dynasty and held several important posts, concurrently acting as miliraty governor of Annam for a time. Whether Nakamaro ever actually went to Annam as military governor remains yet to be confirmed, and it is presumed that the title was only an honorary one. But in the *Ts'ê Fu Yuan Ch'iii*, a book written during the Sung dynasty, and again in the *Annam Chih Liao* by Lê Tsê, an Annamese, who surrendered himself to the Yuan army when the latter invaded Annam, mention is made of Chao Hêng, as Nakamaro was called in Chinese, having defended Annam against an attack by barbaric tribesmen while at his post in Annam. On the strength of these literary references, a middle-school textbook of Annamese history eulogizes the services of Nakamaro, a fact certainly worthy of note inasmuch as it reflects Annamese psychology, regardless of the authenticity. These are the only two instances of Japan's early contact with Indo-China having been actually recorded in history, but it is conceivable that there were many similar cases that went unrecorded. Although ocean navigation was still undeveloped in those days it is supposed that not a few shipwrecked travellers found their way to Japan, or visited this country by way of ancient China, from Annam, Lin-i, or Funam,

as may be construed from the legendary story of the introduction of Lin-i music into Japan. According to this story, a bonze of Lin-i named Fo Che or Buttetsu as he is called in Japan, accompanied by a Brahman named Bodhi (Bodai according to Japanese pronunciation) went to China to visit the Buddhist centre at Wutaishan and thence journeyed on to Japan, bringing with him the music of Lin-i. Although this story remains historically unconfirmed, there is no denying that the learned Japanese of the Tempei period (729–749) had some knowledge of Lin-i. But since it was also during the Tempei period that Heguri Hironari returned to Japan from Indo-China, bringing news of those parts, the story of Bodhi's visit to Japan may well have been a fabrication.

Between the 9th and 12th centuries, contact between Japan and China was maintained by means of private trading boats, some of which must have drifted to Indo-China, although there is no literature attesting to this. A number of Chinese books arriving in Japan during this period, however, served to give some information about Indo-China. There is also evidence that during the T'ang and Sung dynasties certain Japanese products found their way to Indo-China while Indo-Chinese goods reached Japan via Chinese ports.

Early in the 13th century the Mongols had succeeded in founding the Empire of Yuan, and twice had sent military expeditions to Japan through Korea, once in 1274 and again 7 years later, both of which proved futile. Prior to this, in 1256, the Mongolian army, which had invaded Europe, had sent an expedition into Tongking from Yunnan in an attempt to attack the rear of the Sung territory, but after taking the capital of Tongking they were driven out by the Annamese army. In 1284 and 1287 the Mongols again invaded Annam during their drive on Chamba, but on both occasions they were repulsed by the allied forces of Annam and Chamba. These facts point favourably to the great possibilities of the Indo-Chinese race for the future.

The attempted invasion of Japan by the Mongols caused a temporary disruption of communications between Japan and China, but many Japanese, stimulated by this incident, ventured out to seek their fortunes beyond the seas. Thus, sailing small craft, these seagoing adventurers visited the Korean and China coasts to carry on trading activities, occasionally resorting to violence when unduly

opposed to the great consternation of the Chinese who called them *Wo K'ou*. Largely responsible for these alleged acts of violence were the unequal treatment given to Japanese goods by the Chinese in their trade with Japan as well as the grudge the Japanese were harbouring against China since the attempted Mongolian invasion of Japan.

In parallel with the activities of the *Wo K'ou*, normal trade relations were resumed between Japan and China under a permit system. Relations continued thus until the middle of the 16th century, when communications between Japan and China were again disrupted owing to the dispatch of Toyotomi Hideyoshi's expeditionary force to conquer Korea. The subsequent inauguration of the system of the *Gosyuinsen*[1], however, made it possible for Japanese merchant ships to engage in peaceful trade with the southern countries of Asia. Also conducive to this trend was the acquisition by the Japanese of a rich knowledge of overseas trade as the result of the visits made to Japan in those days by Portuguese, Spanish and Dutch merchant ships.

The *Gosyuinsen* thus opened a new channel of communications between Japan and Indo-China. In 1592 nine *Gosyuinsen* were sent overseas for trading purposes and in the following years, at least two such ships visited Indo-China. Japanese trade continued to thrive and by 1604, as many as 29 Japanese boats were actively engaged in overseas trade, 15 of them calling at various ports of Indo-China.

In the meantime Indo-Chinese trading boats had been visiting Japan. According to the *Gaikoku Nyusinki*, a book dealing with foreign ships visiting Japan, a ship arrived from Cochin in 1595, followed by a boat each from Quanghnam and Cambodia in 1601, all of them carrying their respective Kings' messages of friendship to Japan. It was in this way that official relations were first opened between Japan and the countries of Indo-China.

Turning to look at the general situation in Indo-China during this period, we find that Tongking and the middle part of Annam, as far as the vicinity of the province of Phu Yen, together formed the territory of the Kingdom of Annam, which was divided into two parts by the hostile dynasties of Mac and Lê respectively. In

1 Boats carrying the official permit of the Tokugawa Shogunate.

1593, or a year after the arrival of the first *Gosyuinsen* from Japan, Lê The Ton, King of the Lê dynasty, assisted by a subject named Trinh Tung, overthrew the Mac dynasty and extended his rule over the entire land of Annam with the Trinh family at the helm of the government. However, Nguyên Hoang, a son of Nguyên Kim who had been instrumental in effecting the restoration of the Lê dynasty, refused to submit to the autocracy of the Trinh family and in 1600 went to live in Hue, where he built up his influence to rival the Trinh family in Tongking. Contention between the two families continued for some time, but the Nguyên territory did not constitute an independent state. The Nguyên family paid due homage to the head of the Lê dynasty as their king, their feud being only with the Trinh family in Tongking. In spite of this fact, foreigners who visited the territory of the Nguyên family named it Cochin-China addressing the head of the Trinh family as "King." The family territory of the Nguyên was also known as Quanghnam.

In 1601 an Annamese boat came to Japan from Quanghnam carrying a message from Prince Doan of the Nguyên family addressed to Tokugawa Ieyasu, the founder of the Tokugawa Shogunate. Thereafter messages were exchanged every year between the Quanghnam Prince and the Tokugawa Shogun until 1606, but even after that date correspondence was exchanged between certain Shogunate officials and Prince Nguyên concerning diplomatic and commercial affairs. Similar messages and official documents were also exchanged between Japan and Cambodia. Furthermore, occasional official correspondence was carried on between Japan and Prince Trinh of Tongking and the King of Chamba, but of the different countries of Indo-China, Quanghnam seems to have been on the most friendly terms with Japan.

These messages and official letters were mostly carried to and from Indo-China by the *Gosyuinsen*, which were thus engaged in both trading and carrying diplomatic messages. Between 1604 and 1616, as many as 83 licensed boats sailed to Indo-China ; while from 1617 until 1635, when a decree was issued prohibiting sailings, it is recorded that there were 79 sailings to Indo-China exclusive of a considerable number of other vessels which it is supposed maintained sailings with official permission. Including sailings made prior to the *Gosyuinsen* period (1592–1603) it is calculated that well over 200 ships in all must have visited Indo-China, with crews of

anything from 60 to 394 men.

The chief Japanese products that found their way to Indo-China aboard the licensed boats were copper, iron, swords, copper ware, gold lacquer ware, picture screens, etc., while among imports from Indo-China were silk, silk fabrics, black tea, scarlet silk gauze, aloeswood, medicines, crêpe de chine, ivory, peacocks, etc. In this connection it should be noted that communications between Japan and Indo-China were designed purely for commercial and diplomatic purposes.

The activities of the licensed boats made it possible for a considerable number of Japanese to emigrate to Indo-China. Many of them settled down in that country as merchants or sailors, some even becoming hired soldiers or government officials. Although it was usual for these Japanese to reside among the natives, not a few of them found it convenient to build Japanese settlements in such towns as Faifo, Tourane, Phnompeng and Pnhalu. These settlements seemed to have come into being sometime before 1615, according to records left by missionaries and travellers, although it is not exactly known when they were first laid out. They probably developed around Japanese commercial houses which had been opened to provide trade facilities for the *Gosyuinsen* periodically arriving there. In time these settlements developed to such an extent that they were finally granted the right of municipal self-government and other privileges tantamount to extraterritoriality. With these Japanese settlements as trading centres, Indo-China's exports and imports made remarkable progress with the aid of the *Gosyuinsen* and other foreign ships, with the result that the economic position of the Japanese in Indo-China became very important. Not only did the Japanese settlements thrive as economic centres but they were also known as the headquarters of religious activities, to the extent that Christianity, which was under a ban in Indo-China in those days, owed its survival in those parts to the protection afforded by the Japanese settlements. Alexadre de Rhodes, who is known as the Xavier of Indo-China, often sought refuge in the Japanese towns, whose extraterritoriality made it possible for Christian services to be held there without interference.

Meanwhile, Buddhist devotees among the Japanese residents in these settlements built their own temples, and many of them went

to worship at the Angkor Vat in Cambodia in the mistaken belief that this was the temple where Gautama once lived and preached. A valuable sketch of this vat or temple drawn by Shimano Kenryo, a noted interpreter of Dutch from Nagasaki who visited Angkor at that time, is still preserved at the Syōkōkan Museum at Mito in Japan. Some of the Japanese residents in Cambodia even volunteered for the local army, either as hired soldiers on temporary or permanent service or as bodyguard soldiers of the King, thereby assisting in the maintenance of peace and order in the land of their residence.

With the Tokugawa Shogunate's prohibition of overseas navigation, however, the influence of the Japanese in Indo-China began to decline in spite of all they had accomplished there. In Japan, activities in connection with foreign trade had to be suspended, but trade between Japan and Indo-China itself was continued by Chinese boats, there being record of even Annamese and Cambodian vessels having arrived at Nagasaki. In spite of this interruption in their overseas activities, Japanese concern for foreign affairs did not wane. The publication in 1795 of the *Annan Sikō* (A Draft Survey of Annam), written by Kondo Seisai, and in 1884–85 the reprinting in Japan of two Chinese books: the *Ta Yüeh Shih Chi Ch'üan Shu* (A Complete History of Indo-China), and the *An Nan Chih Liao* (A Brief Survey of Annam) are eloquent proof of Japan's interest in Indo-China.

ADJUSTMENT OF TRAFFIC IN WAR TIME

Department of Railways

A REMARKABLE development has been achieved by land transportation enterprises in Japan during the last six decades since the construction of the nation's first railway between Sinbasi, Tokyo, and Yokohama in 1872, and their progress has been especially amazing during the, twenties.

However, due to the economic depression following the World War and the rapid development of motor traffic, the transportation enterprises were confronted with a critical situation. In spite of these conditions they still indulged in cut-throat competition with one another, and there was no other way out but to bring all private enterprises under a unified management in order to effectuate sound development. Hence the urgent call for adjustment of traffic.

Thus adjustment of traffic was primarily planned to remedy many evils caused by capitalistic management of transportation enterprises. Since the outbreak of the present China Affair, the same problem has come to assume a new significance. It goes without saying that the transportation industry is destined to play a most important part in establishing a new order in East Asia under the long-term wartime structure. It is imperative, therefore, that efforts should be concentrated on this essential phase of modern industry in accordance with a general plan so that it may bring into full play all its existing facilities in expanding and ensuring transport capacity and effecting the greatest possible economy in the use of materials.

For this purpose, the Law for Adjustment of Traffic was enacted in 1938, followed by the establishment of the Commission for Adjustment of Traffic. The districts designated by the Commission as the areas where traffic was to be regulated ahead of all other parts of the country, included Tokyo, Osaka, Toyama, Kagawa and Hukuoka. Of these five areas, the Tokyo district was to lead the rest in an epoch-making undertaking of readjusting traffic. Accordingly, the Government, in September, 1938, referred the question, "What concrete measures should be taken in regulating land transportation enterprises in Tokyo and vicinity?" to the said Commission

for deliberation. After much study during the ensuing two years or so, the Commission adopted a definite plan and submitted it to the Government at the end of 1940. The said plan is outlined below.

The plan covers an area including Yokohama, Haramatida, Asakawa, Kawagoe, Omiya, Kasukabe, Abiko and Tiba. This area is to be divided into six districts for regional adjustment with the object of combining all private enterprises of local railway, tramway and motor passenger transportation under one appropriate management. Especially with regard to the underground railways in Tokyo, the plan calls for the establishment of a special machinery well adapted for cooperating with the other means of transportation as well as the adjustment and expansion of the subway network. The same report also contains concrete measures concerning the establishment of institutions to provide guidance for the adjustment of traffic in the designated district and cooperation with the Government railways and other local enterprises. Needless to say, the adjustment of traffic in Tokyo is to be undertaken in accordance with this recommendation.

Index Number of Daily Average of

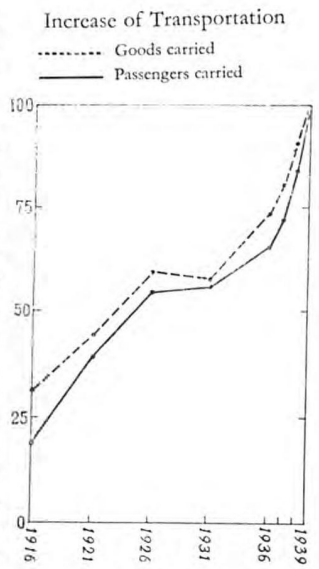
Passengers at Main Railway Stations in Tokyo

	1936	1937	1938	1939	1940
Tokyo	100	101	110	121	136
Yūrakutyō	100	107	117	132	146
Sinbasi	100	103	115	135	153
Tamati	100	107	118	132	139
Kamata	100	117	144	170	173
Ueno	100	108	127	152	178
Ikebukuro	100	110	130	148	172
Takadanobaba	100	104	116	134	159
Sinzyuku	100	105	119	134	148
Sibuya	100	108	130	140	157

A passing survey of the conditions of transportation in Tokyo will show that there are about fifteen different organizations operating various systems of transport besides the Government lines within the old city limits of Tokyo and about forty organizations

in the other parts of the district in question, the total length of the former and latter lines reaching 700 kilometres and about 240 kilometres respectively. Recently passengers carried by these different systems radiating mostly from Marunouti, the centre of Tokyo, are rapidly increasing in volume. Particularly during the rush hours more and more traffic congestion is being caused owing to the insufficient transport capacity of these services. It is necessary, therefore, to establish a permanent plan to meet the fundamental requirements of the situation, considering the trend of rapid increases in the volume of traffic.

Since the mileage and number of trips made by each passenger show a tendency to increase as the population increases in large cities, it is natural that traffic should also increase in volume. The population of Tokyo exceeded 6,778,000 in 1940, showing an increase of 90,000 or 15 per cent during the last five years. The volume of traffic in Tokyo also showed an increase of 65 per cent during the same period. Judging from the past trend, it is estimated that Tokyo's population will total ten million, or an increase of 45 per cent, in ten years. Consequently the volume of traffic will expand between two and a half to three times from what it is now. This will serve to indicate how traffic is affected by increases in population.



In adjusting traffic in a large city, the only possible way will obviously be to adjust and expand its transport capacity. In future, surface traffic will eventually become undesirable from various points of view, and moreover the future population will necessarily be distributed in increasing proportions to the suburbs. Therefore, some means of locomotion with greater speed and larger transport capacities operating from the city centre radiating to the suburban

districts are needed, the best adapted to such needs being the subways. The object of the proposed adjustment must be the construction of new subways between the important points in the city, and the extension of the existing subway lines to the suburbs or their inter-connection with the suburban lines, so as to complete the network of rapid transit lines operating through trains and thereby shorten the time of travel.

However, the construction of an underground railway is not an easy task which can be completed in a short time. A huge capital, superior technical skill and a great deal of time are required; it is difficult for a private concern to undertake the building of a subway. Moreover, if its construction and management be inadequate, it may directly affect the safety of the capital. For this reason, any organization undertaking such a project must be in a position almost as powerful as any one under State management. This point was emphasized plainly in the report of the Commission for the Adjustment of Traffic, with the result that the Government have decided, with the consent of the Diet given during its recent session, to establish a special organization called "The Metropolitan Rapid Transit Corporation."[1] With the establishment of this corporation, plans for the construction of subways have been drawn up and work already started.

Index Number of the Kilometres of Railways Operated

	1906	1911	1916	1921	1926	1931	1936	1937	1938	1939	1940
Government Railways	27	44	51	59	70	82	95	97	99	99	100
Local Railways & tramways	39	27	56	62	89	109	105	105	102	101	100
Total	31	39	53	6[illegible]	76	91	99	99	100	100	100

The total length of lines projected will be 70 kilometres, exclusive of the existing line of 14 kilometres between Sibuya and Asakusa until recently owned partly by the Tokyo Underground Railway Company and partly by the Tokyo Rapid Transit Railway Company which have been purchased for operation by the new corporation.

[1] The corporation was established on July 4.

To complete the projected work several years will be required. First of all the prevailing actual conditions of transportation must be examined in order to work out basic principles for the adjustment of traffic and also for the project of construction work. The first step was taken toward the realization of the project when an investigation was made on June 10, 1941, of the traffic volume within the areas affected by the project, under the joint auspices of the Department of Railways, the Department of Home Affairs, the Metropolitan Police Board and all other institutions interested.

FROM JAPANESE POINTS OF VIEW

Under this general title, the TOKYO GAZETTE reviews books and other publications representing Japanese views of life and the world.

SEISI TO KAKEI (Surnames and Genealogy) by Akira Ohta. Tokyo : Sōgen Sya, 1941. pp. 366, 1.70 yen.

With the idea of making the findings of his researches into family names and genealogy available to the reading public, Mr. Ohta, already a noted authority on this subject, has now published a condensation of the results of his life-time study. Essential knowledge on this subject is given in an interesting manner in nine chapters, i. e. *Introduction ; Tribal and Patriarchal Names and Family Names ; Pedigrees and Lineage ; Social Structure in Ancient Japan ; Various Families and Clans ; Patriarchal and Tribal Names ; Development of Individual Names ; Origin of the Four Great Families (Gen-Pei-Tō-Kitsu) ; Development of Hu (family-trees) and Tyō (brief personal history) ; and Methods of Studying Genealogy.* This is deemed sufficient to enable the reader to find the origin of any old family he may be interested in or to judge the authenticity of its traditions which, accidentally or deliberately, may have been misrepresented.

A graduate of the Zingū Kōgakkan, attached to the Grand Shrine of Ise, the author became early interested in the mythology and ancient history of Japan. In 1910 he became a teacher at the Kōhu Girls' High School and here he devoted his spare time to the study of the geography of various provinces. Several years later he was appointed to the Shrines Bureau of the Home Department, where in connection with researches into the history of Shinto shrines he set about the study of the genealogy of divinities and the lineage of powerful provincial clans in history. The first product of his labours was the Study of Social Structure in Ancient Japan, which was published in book form in 1929 and won him an undisputed place among students of ancient Japanese history. Next appeared a dictionary of surnames and pedigrees from ancient to modern times which he completed in December 1936. A laborious work in three

large volumes with over 6,600 pages, it was the fruit of assiduous collection and research extending over thirty-seven years. This established his fame as an authority of genealogy.

In the book under review, *Surnames and Genealogy*, the essentials of Japanese genealogy which the author has acquired through many years' study are plainly and interestingly expounded, citing by way of illustration familiar facts and noted figures in Japanese history. It will serve as a valuable work of reference for students of ancient and modern Japanese history and will also afford many suggestions for the study of Japanese history in general.

According to Mr. Ohta's genealogical study, it is only the Imperial Family and its branches whose genealogies have been preserved in perfect form for 2,600 years or more since the founding of the Empire. The Prime Minister, Prince Fumimaro Konoe, is a direct descendant of the Fujiwara family. Fujiwara is a tribal name bestowed by the Emperor Tenchi[1] on Kamatari, a member of the Nakatomis reputedly descended from Ameno-Koyane-no-Mikoto, one of the followers of the descendants of the Sun Goddess at the time of their descent to the earth. The Fujiwara family is therefore one of the most illustrious families closely connected with the Imperial House. But even of this noted family no accurate genealogy is known for the eighteen generations preceding the great-great-grandfather of Kamatari, Nakatomi-no-Kuroda-no-Muraji, there being divergence of opinion with regard to their pedigrees. Izumo-no-Kuni-no-Miyatsuko, was the most noted tribe in the provinces and undoubtedly a very ancient one, but no reliable data remain to ascertain its history in remote ages. Such being the case, the genealogies of even the most noted families can be traced back only to some hundreds of years. Those families having authentic pedigrees extending over a thousand years may be counted on the fingers.

Owing to the recurrent disturbances before the Restoration of 1868, families which were once powerful became extinct, while men of humble origin rose to eminence by dint of their distinguished military services. Amid these vicissitudes the genealogical records of some families were lost, while individuals who rose from obscurity associated their own lineage with pedigrees of noble families, thus causing the confusion of genealogies. Some of the feigned pedigrees were so cleverly contrived that to the eyes of ordinary

[1] 626–671 A.D.

people they seem authentic. But the genealogist will find clues to detect fabrication in individual names which are unknown in history, modern pronunciation applied to ancient names, or affiliation of a family of clearly known descent with a nobler one entirely of a different stock.

One of the objects of genealogical study, therefore, is to judge the authenticity of pedigrees. In Mr. Ohta's present work, Chapter III entitled *Various Families and Clans*, Chapter IV *Development of Individual Names*, and Chapter VII *Development of Hu* (*family-trees*) and *Tyō* (*brief personal history*) furnish preliminary knowledge for this purpose. Chapter VI which deals with the *Origin of the Four Great Families* (Gen-Pei-Tō-Kitsu) gives a brief but clear account of how all families in Japan came to be comprised in the four great ones in an attempt to ennoble their pedigrees by affiliation with illustrious families. In Chapter I, *Pedigrees and Lineage*, the author with his profound knowledge of history and in the light of genealogical data of the ages scathingly points out conflicting elements and inconsistencies existing in the genealogical records of various families. The last and eighth chapter, *Methods of Studying Genealogy*, teaches the reader how to make up for lost genealogical records, how to find data and arrange materials in order to get a desired pedigree into shape. The author is now a lecturer on genealogy at the Zingū Kōgakkan in Ise and the Ritumeikan University in Kyoto founded by the late Prince Kinmochi Saionji.

According to Mr. Ohta pedigrees of families dating from the Kamakura Period (1285–1333) are on the whole correct and reliable but among the genealogies of families originating before that period there are many whose authenticity is doubtful. Plainly speaking, the Japanese in olden times must have had no family names at all but only individual personal names. When certain people became powerful by dint of their wealth or prowess, other people, out of awe and respect, refrained from calling them by their personal names but by honorific names consisting of place-names prefixed to terms of respect for men such as *hiko*, *takeru*, etc., (e.g. Shikitsu-hiko, Kawakami-no-takeru). Terms of respect for women were *tobe*, *tome*, *hime*, etc., and female patriarchs were called, for instance, Nishiki-tobe, Harima-tome and Taburatsu-hime. When tribes or groups of families led by such patriarchs came in contact with one another and there arose the necessity of distinguishing themselves from others,

they called their own tribes by the names of places where they dwelt, e.g. Shiki, Nishiki, etc., and thus arose the consciousness of kinship society. The author concludes that such explanatory notes in the *Kojiki* and the *Nihonshoki* as, "Ameno-Koyane-no-Mikoto is the founder of Nakatomi-*uji*," is an addition made in later ages, there having been no names for *uji* (tribes or groups of families) in those remote ages. This is an original view of Mr. Ohta.

As numbers of *uji* came under the rule of the Imperial Family one after another there arose the necessity of putting them in order by some means of ranking, and the patriarchs (then called *hitokono-kami*) of *uji* were granted *kabane* (patriarchal names or titles) by the Imperial Court, such as *kimi*, *omi*, *muraji*, etc., in accordance with their power, wealth, or relative degrees of kinship with the Imperial Family. *Kabane* was bestowed also on female patriarchs. For instance, Morogata-no-kimi Izumi-hime is a conferee of the title *kimi*. The patriarchal title was conferred not only on the chieftain alone, but all the members of his tribe including females and children were allowed to bear it. *Uji* is the name for a tribe or group of families indicating blood-relationship, and is of spontaneous development, while *kabane* is a title conferred by the Imperial Court to show the family rank. They are therefore unchangeable for all time. But down to the time of the Taika Reformation (645 A.D.) it had often been the practice of tribal chiefs gaining influence socially, financially, or in arms, to assume false names and titles and pretend to be of noble origin.

The Reform of 645 A.D. was, to put it briefly, aimed at the remedying of evils caused by the rampancy of those powerful families and the restoration of Imperial authority. Men of talent were taken into government service irrespective of birth or social position. No one could hope for promotion or advancement in life merely by dint of their ancestors' merits or parents' ability. Tribal names and patriarchal titles did not count much as in former days, but like the peerage in present day France and Russia, became merely historic designations. Those who gained power freely assumed new names and titles. For instance the Kasuga family, who originated in Kasuga in Nara, used to bear the title of Kasuga-no-omi wherever they went to live. A member of the Kasuga family, who moved to Awada, Yamasiro province, called his family Yamasiro-no-Kasuga-no-Awada-no-omi, and took pride in being a Kasuga-no-omi.

But after the Taika Reformation they cast off the title of Kasuga, and styled themselves simply Awada-no-omi, thus founding a new family.

With the development of intercourse with China during the Nara Period (710–784) our people were much influenced by Confucian and Buddhist cultures and began to show an inclination for form and pomp in imitation of Chinese customs and manners under the T'ang dynasty. This influence was notable in the naming of persons. Hitherto individuals were named after animals, plants, minerals and other objects in nature, e.g. Kujira (whale), Iruka (porpoise), Umako (colt), Iname (rice-sprout) and Tachibana (orange), are cases in point. But gradually these gave way to auspicious names with moral significance, such as Toyonari, Kiyomaro, and Hirotsugu (roughly meaning "affluence," "purity," and "comprehensiveness" respectively. At the same time there arose a tendency to change tribal and patriarchal names to those of more famous families. For instance, Abe-no-Hikuta-no-omi, descended from the Abe-uji, established themselves immediately after the Taika Reformation as simply Hikuta-no-asomi and were proud of this new patriarchal name. But in the Nara Period, as this name was of not much count, they reverted to the Abe-no-asomi, one of the most influential families at that time, on the strength of their being of the same origin.

The Chinese influence grew more marked in the Heian Period (794–1192), when the feeling of admiration for things Chinese ran higher and higher. In naming individuals they adopted "two characters with four sounds," choosing felicitous, euphonic words, e.g. Masayoshi (正良) and Michiyasu (道康). Also names with "a common character" came in vogue. If the eldest brother's name was Mitsunaka (滿仲), his younger brothers were called Mitsumasa (滿政), Mitsusuye (滿季), Mitsuzane (滿實), using the same character *mitsu* (滿) for all of them. Then the sons of Mitsunaka were named Yorimitsu (頼光), Yorichika (頼親), Yorinobu (頼信) and Yorihira (頼平), sharing the character *yori* (頼). Thus one generation could be told from another at a glance. This mode of nomenclature may be attributed to the influence of Chinese genealogy. In the latter part of the Heian Period, during the days of Murasaki-shikibu, author of the famous *Genji Monogatari*, the practice of employing "a common character" for brothers' names began to be replaced by the custom of naming after ancestors, or of giving

names by the use of characters in ancestral names. Simultaneously with this began the custom of using *azana* (alias), which also seems to have been due to Chinese influence. Instead of being called by real names, persons of note were spoken of by the names of their dwelling-places, offices, etc. For instance, Yorimichi (a statesman of the Fujiwara family) was called Uzi-kanpaku (Lord Chancellor Uzi), since his villa was at Uzi, while Kanezane (also a Fujiwara), who resided at Kujō in Kyoto, was spoken of as Kujō-dono (dono means residence, later becoming an honorific title). These aliases gradually developed into the names of families branched out of *uji* (a tribe or group of families). This accounts for the origin of such noted families as Kujō, Ichijō, Nijō, Konoe, Takatsukasa, Sanjō, Saga and Kuga, which all are branches of the Fujiwara-uji.

Likewise, ladies serving at Court also came to be called by aliases, e.g. Murasaki-shikibu (author of *Genji Monogatari*), Sei-shōnagon, Ise-no-ōsuke (a noted *uta* poetess). This vogue of calling women by aliases was so widely prevalent that real names were seldom or never used and some of them were not even preserved on record. Sei-shōnagon (who wrote *Makura-no-Sōshi*) was certainly of the Kiyohara family, but her personal name is not known. While Murasaki-shikibu is known to be the daughter of Fujiwara-Tametoki, her real name has been lost in oblivion.

In the Kamakura Period (1192–1333) the use of "common characters" for fraternal names went out of fashion, and instead it became popular for successive generations. For instance, the Hōjōs, who held real power in the Kamakura Shogunate, used the character 時 (*toki*) through every generation, the line of successive Regents running like this: Tokimasa (時政)—Yoshitoki (義時)—Yasutoki (泰時)—Tsunetoki (經時)—Tokiyori (時頼)—Nagatoki (長時)—Tokimune (時宗). Thus every family transmitted some particular "common character" generation after generation. This custom was kept up through the Muromati Period (1333-1573), Azuti-Momoyama Period (1573–1598) and down to the Edo Period (1600–1827). It was in these days that the custom of "bestowing a character" began. The Emperor, an Imperial Prince, or a Shogun often allowed a character from his name to be used in the forming of a feudal lord's name. Thus Hōjō-Tokimune was awarded by Prince Munetaka (宗尊) the character *mune* (宗) to form his name (時宗), while Ashikaga-Takauji (尊氏) was allowed by the Emperor

Godaigo to use in his name the character *taka* (尊) out of Takaharu (尊治), the Emperor's own name. This practice was also common among military commanders and feudal lords, who would bestow one of the characters of their own names to a retainer.

Although some of the military commanders came of noble, historic families, there were many who had risen from humble origin and they naturally desired to make their lineage look like those of nobility. So they assumed family names of masters whom they had served while they were still in obscurity, or affiliated their pedigrees with genealogies of noted families by taking advantage of the slightest connection with them. It thus became their usual practice to assume one or other of the four ancient tribal names, Gen-Pei-Tō-Kitsu, i.e. Minamoto, Taira, Fujiwara, and Tachibana. Hence these came to be called the four great family names.

The examples of the military commanders were followed by their retainers, who also pretended to be of noble descent by tampering with their pedigrees. At last even farmers began to assume names expressive of government offices. Kichiemon was derived from the name of a Tachibana who served in the *Emon-bu* (Court Police), Denbei is borrowed from the name of a *Taguti* attending the *Hyoe-bu* (Imperial Guards), and Saburobei is named after the third son of a *Hyoe-bu* petty officer. From the latter part of the Heian Period to the Kamakura Period those who served in the *Emon-bu* or the *Hyoe-bu* were exempted from corvée, so that farmers, taking advantage of the laxity of official discipline and public order, assumed such names in pretence of being ex-warriors to obtain this privilege.

This more or less summarizes the results of Mr. Ohta's genealogical research. He elucidates how tribal and patriarchal names and individual names originated, underwent changes, and declined through the centuries, and at the same time indicates the features of successive ages as revealed in genealogy. An acquaintance with these facts is in itself of interest, but by practical application of this knowledge one is able to investigate any family-tree and to work out the lineage of families whose genealogical records are extinct.

Foreign Policy of Japan: 1914–1939. By Masamichi Rōyama. Tokyo: Japanese Council, Institute of Pacific Relations, 1941. pp. XV+182. 5 yen.

This book, the seventh and last of the "Far Eastern Conflict"

series, is written by Mr. Rōyama, formerly Professor of Political Science at the Tokyo Imperial University, sometime lecturer on Japanese History and Politics at the University of Hawaii, Director of Tokyo Institute of Political and Economic Research and author of several important works in his academic fields. The principal thesis advanced in this work is that Japan's ultimate policy in the present Sino-Japanese Conflict lies in the establishment of a new East Asian Order through political, economic and cultural collaboration mainly between Japan, China and Manchoukuo, while maintaining friendly relations with the other countries of the world. In working out his thesis, the author traces the development of Japan's foreign policy in two parts, "From the 1914–18 War to the Manchurian Incident" and "A New Order in East Asia and Japan's Foreign Policy," comprising 14 chapters with a general introduction to the volume.

The foreign policy of Japan during the Meiji Era, according to the author, was to secure recognition of her two neighbours, China and Korea, and of the Western Powers as an independent nation in the Far East. Japan obtained this objective through her wars with China and Russia, through the establishment of her national constitution and judicial system and through her various internal reforms along Western standards. Having thus strengthened herself as a modern State, Japan turned her attention, especially after the Russo-Japanese War, to the consolidation of her newly gained position in Manchuria by means of conference diplomacy with major Powers of the West. Now as a land power on the Asiatic continent and a sea power on the Pacific, Japan felt that she was forced to create her "spheres of interest" on that continent, particularly in China. While cooperating economically and in other ways with the Western Powers in China, Japan thought that she had a special concern in that country quite different from those of other nations. An opportunity for enhancing her influence on the Asiatic mainland arrived with the outbreak of the World War in 1914. During the War the balance of power was upset in China, and Japan, by entering the War, took over the German interests on the Shantung Peninsula, and made the so-called "Twenty One Demands" on China, the true nature of which is greatly misunderstood, causing great opposition in that country and in the West as well. The post-War years were spent by the Western Powers in the formation of the Washington

and other treaties to curb the increased Japanese influence in China through the American doctrines of "Open Door" and "Equal Opportunity." Japan, now in the hands of the political parties which had risen to power during the War but which possessed no definite foreign policy of their own, had to follow in the footsteps of the Western Powers who were intent upon obtaining collective security through conferences and negotiations.

Increasing dissatisfaction, however, was felt, Mr. Rōyama goes on to say, among the Japanese people over Western domination with regard to the problems of the Pacific, particularly with respect to Japan's special position on the mainland of Asia. This became more pronounced especially after the London Naval Conference of 1930. In the meantime a strong national consciousness was being awakened and came to oppose every Japanese move in Manchuria. The inability to reach a conciliatory settlement of the problems in Manchuria through negotiations between Japan and China precipitated the Manchurian Incident of 1931, resulting in the creation of the buffer state of Manchoukuo, Japan's withdrawal from the League of Nations and her alienation from the Washington Treaties, by which acts she definitely abandoned the West sponsored policy of collective security as inadequate to solve her own foreign problems.

The Manchurian Incident, the author explains, did not solve the problem of Sino-Japanese relations; on the contrary, it aggravated the anti-Japanese consciousness and movement among the Chinese people. This became particularly manifest in North China. Japan's plan of making that portion of China as an autonomous buffer region between the rest of China and Manchoukuo clashed with the Chinese national unification movement and policy of directly controlling not merely North China but also Manchuria. This became the bone of contention between the two countries. To be sure, certain understandings and agreements were reached between Japan and the Chinese local authorities in North China; but the then Nationalist Government at Nanking refused to recognize them, relying on the League of Nations and on Western Powers. Unpleasant incidents were of constant occurrence, culminating finally in the fatal event of July 7, 1937, which started the North China Incident. Upon the outbreak of the Incident, Japan positively stood for its non-aggravation and local settlement, as shown in the statement issued by the Government on July 11, 1937 (p. 113), while taking precautionary

measures. Negotiations ensued between Japan and China with that end in view. But the Nanking Government was in no mood even to lend ears to Japanese proposals. Instead, the Chinese succeeded in spreading the flames by their unprovoked aerial attack upon the cruiser Izumo in Shanghai on August 14, greatly aggravating the Affair. Even then the Japanese Government consistently continued the policy of non-extension and non-aggravation (pp. 118 f.). But to the Kuomintang Government it was of no avail. After the fall of Nanking on December 17, 1937, Germany, through her Ambassador to China, offered good offices to bring about an amicable settlement of the Conflict, proposing several basic terms for negotiations (pp. 122 f.). The Chinese Government turned a deaf ear to them, which characterized the strong-headed anti-Japanese attitude of the Chiang régime. Thus the North China Incident has grown to be a general China Affair, from which conflict the two peoples have not emerged as yet. In the meantime, the Chinese regional Governments were organized in Peking and Nanking; they are now consolidated into the new National Government of China under Mr. Wang Ching-wei.

With this development of the China Affair, Mr. Rōyama turns his special attention to the statements of the Japanese Government as to the ultimate objective in the disposition of the Affair. During the first year of the Conflict, Japan, he notes, simply aimed at creating a new order in North China and Inner Mongolia, while "chastising" by force the anti-Japanese policy of the Chinese Nationalist Government. This was then the policy of Japan in North China adopted along with that of conciliation and cooperation with the rest of China. During the first stages of the North China Incident, Japan was following this double policy of local settlement and conciliation and did not make public her main objective in the Conflict. But in view of the desirability, as the Incident grew to be a general Sino-Japanese Affair, of making the true nature of the Affair known both to the people of Japan and to the world at large, the Japanese Government issued a memorable statement on November 3, 1938, regarding the ultimate purpose. The statement quoted in part by the author reads as follows:

> What Japan seeks is the establishment of a new order which will insure the permanent stability of East Asia. In this lies the ultimate purpose of our present military campaign.

> This new order has for its foundation a tripartite relationship of mutual aid and coordination between Japan, Manchoukuo and China in political, economic, cultural and other fields. Its object is to secure international justice, to perfect the joint defence against Communism, and to create a new culture and realize a closer economic cohesion throughout East Asia. This indeed is the way to contribute toward the stabilization of East Asia and the progress of the world.
>
> What Japan desires of China is that that country will share in the task of bringing about of this new order in East Asia. She confidently expects that the people of China will fully comprehend her true intentions and that they will respond to the call of Japan for their cooperation. Even the participation of the Kuomintang Government would not be rejected, if, repudiating the policy which has guided it in the past and remoulding its personnel, so as to translate its rebirth into fact, it were to come forward to join in the establishment of the new order (pp. 145 f.).

Such being Japan's ultimate objective of the China Affair, the author points out that Japan invites the entire people of China to participate in the establishment of a new East Asian Order of peace and stability, based on the principles of neighbourly friendship, joint defence against Communism, and close cooperation. He refers in this connection, to the statement of December 22, of the same year, by Prime Minister Prince Konoe, what has since been known as the "Konoe Statement" based upon the aforementioned principles, on the minimum conditions for the readjustment of the Sino-Japanese relations, embodying such proposals as the establishment of complete diplomatic relations between China and Manchoukuo; conclusion of a Sino-Japanese anti-Comintern Agreement; and the grant of facilities to Japan for the development of China's natural resources, especially in North China and Inner Mongolia (pp. 149 ff.).

As to the reactions of the third Powers, particularly the United States and Great Britain, to Japan's ultimate purpose in the Sino-Japanese Conflict space does not permit us to discuss them here at length; but it will be sufficient to note from what the author tells us the fact that these Democracies take serious exception, from their standpoint based upon the Doctrine of "Open Door" and "Equal Opportunity" and of strict observance of treaty obligations, to Japan's claim that she has very special relations with that country in matters of political and economic coordination and that two

neighbours must accordingly cooperate in realizing the ideal of a new order in East Asia. Great Britain and the United States in particular refuse to recognize the need of creating the new order in East Asia, so fears our author, and are thus determined to lay every obstacle to Japan's efforts to settle the China Affair and to establish the new East Asian Order. This is the fundamental point in the relation between Japan and the third Powers *vis-à-vis* the Sino-Japanese Conflict.

This leads us to our author's interpretation of the new order in East Asia and its bearing on world peace. Mr. Rōyama rightly holds that Japan had been following the general world trends in her foreign policy, up to the outbreak of the Manchurian Incident but with the declaration of a new East Asian Order, she has worked out distinctly her own policy for the solution of the Far Eastern problem. Now what is the nature of this new order? How can it be achieved? What bearing does it have on world peace? In answer to these questions, the author tentatively points out that the new order in East Asia is one form of regional international organization, embracing for the present the three countries, Japan, China and Manchoukuo, which have common racial, political, economic and cultural conditions; that this new order is an organization which will safeguard to the fullest extent the nationality, independence, and freedom of each of its constituent nations; and that such new order is a form of cooperation or co-existence of independent States which will not prevent international intercourse but will further it and ensure world peace. With regard to the method of realizing the new order, Mr. Rōyama is of the opinion that it should be achieved by diplomatic negotiations and by the common consent of all parties concerned.

Yet he maintains that in a number of points the so-called principles of "Open Door" and "Equal Opportunity" conflict with those of the new East Asian Order, not with respect to the matter of trading rights of other countries in China but as regards their practical application, and that certain restrictions upon the practices or processes of the trading rights of those countries would be unavoidable, in view of the existence of special relations between Japan and China. It must further be noted, according to him, that the success in the negotiations for the new order depends not so much upon its technical perfection or upon the benefits it confers on the

region embraced by the order as upon whether it will promote peace in the Pacific and in the world at large. This will necessitate readjustments and revisions in the existing treaties and in the methods of international dealing. Negotiations for these purposes may be either multilateral or bilateral—general questions, for example, common to Pacific countries may be dealt with multilaterally while those problems affecting the particular nations of the Pacific discussed bilaterally. Japan prefers the latter and the former is advocated by the Democracies; and yet a compromise between the two diplomatic processes does not appear impossible. "In view of her past experiences in 'conference diplomacy,' Japan will probably object to the method of dealing with all questions at the same time and place. However, she will not fail to realize that all of them are essentially interdependent and mutually conditional. And it will not be at all impossible to discover a compromise between the diplomatic process preferred by Japan and that desired by the advocates of collective security" (p. 174). With these words our author concludes his book, contending for diplomatic settlement of all questions relating to Pacific countries, particularly Japan and China and the third Powers having interests in the latter nation.

In this work Mr. Rōyama has given us a succinct and lucid presentation of the essential aspects of Japan's policy toward foreign countries, particularly *vis-à-vis* China, during the quarter of a century, with special reference to the China Affair in its relation to the establishment of new East Asian Order. The author's interpretation of this new order, especially his idea as to the method of realizing it may not meet the approval of all; nonetheless, it stimulates the serious thinking of students of world affairs.

While Mr. Rōyama's work is published this year, he wrote it in the fall of 1939. Consequently the important developments in Japan's foreign policy since then, such as her conclusion on September 27, 1940, of the Tripartite Pact, causing great repercussions in the world: her signing on November 30, of the same year, of the Sino-Japanese Basic Treaty with the new National Government of China, introducing a new era in the history of East Asia; her relations with Thailand and French Indo-China together with her recent southward moves, enlarging her conception of the New East Asian Order to embrace a greater sphere of co-prosperity for Asiatic peoples than was envisaged by her in 1938; her strained relations

with the United States and Great Britain, who are persistent in their contention for the restoration, in East Asia, of the *status quo* prior to the opening of the Sino-Japanese Conflict—these and like items in Japan's foreign relations since the fall of 1939 need to be supplemented to complete Mr. Rōyama's survey of Japan's foreign policy. This does not necessarily mean, however, to minimize the high value of his work on Japan's foreign relations during the period covered by the book. On this period of the Japan's policy, Mr. Rōyama has given us a readable history documented by official statements, particularly with respect to the Sino-Japanese Conflict, purporting to show the necessity of establishing a New Order in East Asia which will ensure the permanent stability of this region and contribute toward the peace of the world.

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